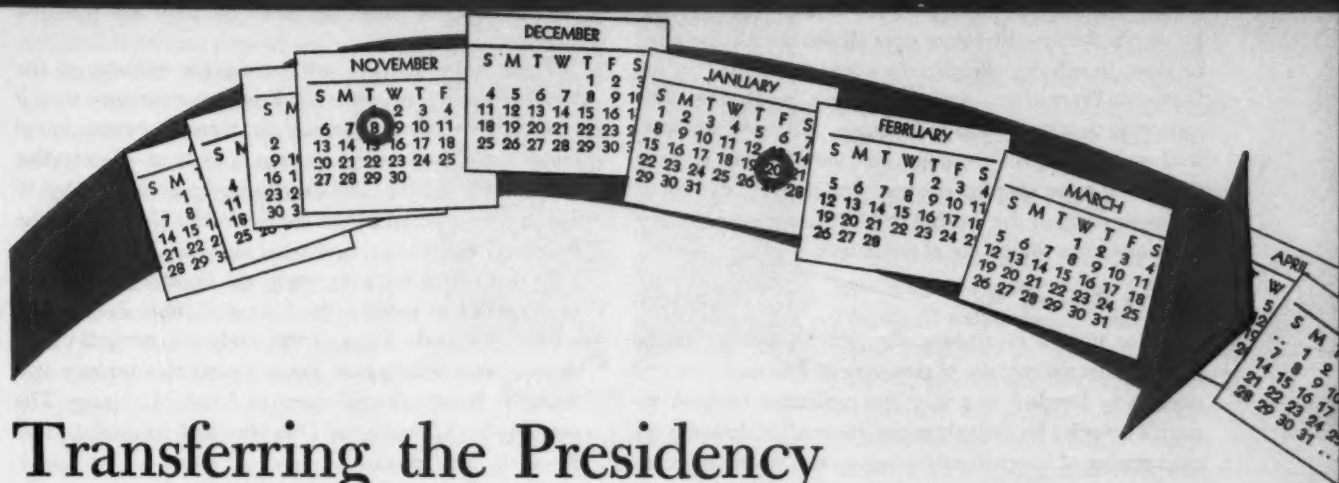


Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly

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Transferring the Presidency

■ Once in the dear dead days beyond recall the country would elect a new President on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November and then nothing much would happen to the new President or the old one or the country until the following March.

The President-elect generally would go away for a much-needed rest. (Woodrow Wilson went to Bermuda and as the result of a cable breakdown was completely out of touch with the world for five days, which pleased him very much.) He would give some—not necessarily urgent—thought to the composition of his cabinet and other matters. (Again to cite the case of Wilson, his cabinet was not completed until a week before his inauguration; some of its members met each other, and one met Wilson himself, for the first time on inauguration day.)

The retiring President, who of course bore constitutional responsibility until his successor's inauguration in March, remained in Washington, where the main event was the arrival, in December, of the lame duck Congress which had been superseded by the election of a new one just the month before. This Congress often proceeded to enact miscellaneous legislative mischief which bedeviled the last days of the old President and the first days of the new one.

Communications, if any, between the incumbent and his successor were rarely concerned with substantive matters of state. Hence in 1912 we hear the newly elected Wilson asking President Taft's "candid opinion" (which

was good) of the White House housekeeper. Eight years later, Mrs. Wilson invited Mrs. Harding to the White House, where the latter was shown "everything but the kitchen and the President." Wilson and Harding did not meet, however, until a notably cool tea that the Wilsons gave for their successors on March 3.

Times Have Changed

All the foregoing is not meant to throw into question the seriousness of purpose of previous Presidents or the gravity of the problems they confronted. It is simply to say that times have changed. In the days when the nation's problems were primarily internal, when transportation and communications were slow, when the federal government embraced a mere handful of personnel, the turn-over from one administration to another could hardly be anything but leisurely. But recent years have been a period in which "big government" has become established, official governmental responsibilities have increased enormously, and—overshadowing all—international developments have created a condition of constant peril. During a 28-year period of rapid change there have been only two changes of administration; and one of those permitted no normal transition period at all, since it took place on President Roosevelt's death during the war.

Thus within a few days we will move, for only the second time in 28 years, into what is a formal period of "transi-

tion"—those now two and a half months (since the passage of the 20th Amendment) between the election of a new President and his inauguration. Informally, the period lasts much longer. In a sense it has already begun, as certain decisions and actions throughout the government begin to be deferred awaiting the outcome in November. And, in fact, the transition period will last well past January 20, as the new President does all the things that must be done to achieve effective direction and control of the Executive Branch: making appointments, organizing staffs, proposing new legislation to Congress. Although the practical problems of the transition will vary in some respects depending upon whether the new President is or is not of the same party as the retiring President, nonetheless there are many areas which are of common concern.

Today's Problems

Under present conditions, the general welfare clearly requires that the transfer of governmental control after the election be handled in a way that maintains the government's capacity for instantaneous, responsible decisions on emergencies of international relations and national security. It must be done in a way that minimizes delays in decision-making and action on other important matters, in a manner that enables the new administration to determine its policy directions with the least possible delay, in a way that avoids unnecessary disruption of the continuing machinery and personnel of the government.

Most previous transitions have been far from satisfactory in these respects. The breakdown in national policy-making in the depression crisis during the transfer from President Hoover to President Roosevelt is familiar history. Fortunately, the transfer from President Truman to President Eisenhower eight years ago had the benefit of an unprecedented amount of advance planning on both sides, and it produced some important and useful innovations in cooperative action, particularly concerning the handling of the budget and certain aspects of foreign and military affairs.

Nonetheless there are only a few relevant precedents to guide both the incoming and outgoing administrations as they confront the enormous problems involved in the transition. The government itself, now as in 1952, is well aware of the difficulties. Last spring, a Carnegie grant was made to the Brookings Institution, an independent, non-profit research organization in Washington, to study the practical problems involved in the transfer of Presidential responsibility.

The word "practical" is important in the context, for the policy problems can, it goes without saying, be dealt with only by the President and his advisers. He and they must determine the policy goals, but how quickly and how

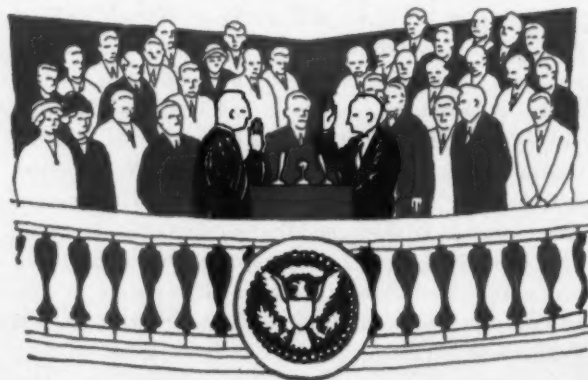
effectively they can move toward meeting those goals depends to a large extent on how quickly and well they learn to use the institutions and instruments—formal and informal—of government. Only when the President has a firm grasp of the inexorable demands of the calendar, of priorities and timetables, of the resources available to him, can he move decisively to push his program forward.

These latter matters are among the subjects of the Brookings study: priorities the President-elect must meet if he is to be ready on January 20, issues of governmental organization and reorganization, problems of executive recruitment and the Civil Service, and alternative ways in which the President might use the White House staff, the Bureau of the Budget, and other agencies.

In proceeding with the study, the Brookings staff have been guided in part by the history of other Presidential transition periods. Prior to this study, an analysis of the change-overs which took place during this century was made by Brookings staff member Laurin L. Henry. The resulting book, *Presidential Transitions*, will be published by Brookings next month.

The staff have also been guided by the more recent experience of a distinguished advisory committee, under the chairmanship of Robert D. Murphy, composed of men of both parties who have been involved in previous transitions. This committee helped plan the study and reviewed its findings, which will be available to both candidates.

Published results of the Brookings work are due to appear starting in early November. In addition, the Brookings staff have helped prepare several articles for other publications, for a central aim of the project has been to bring about better public understanding of the nature of transition problems in the belief that this will lead to valuable public support of our elected officials as they carry out the change of command in Washington. And the Brookings staff will keep in touch with the events of this transition as they unfold, so that the highlights of the 1960-61 experience will be available "next time."

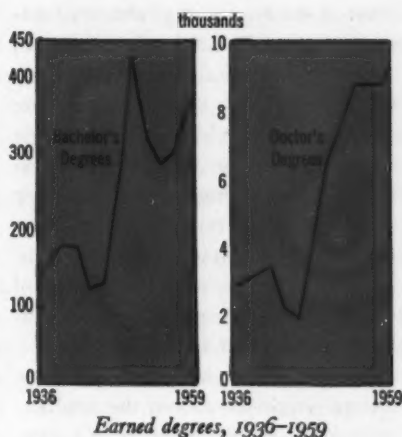


Graduate Education in the United States

■ Long ago Benjamin Franklin observed that persons of good sense, with the exception of three classes of people, seldom fall into disputation. Two groups that do are lawyers and "men of all sorts that have been bred at Edinburgh." The third is composed of university men.

Although largely unheard by the rest of the populace, one of the noisiest disputes among university men in recent years has concerned graduate education in the United States, which is by no coincidence the title of a book by Bernard Berelson which was published this month by the McGraw-Hill Book Company. Under a Carnegie grant to the University of Chicago Dr. Berelson, who is now director of Columbia University's Bureau of Applied Social Research, made a two-year study with the purpose of showing what has happened, what is now happening, and what will probably happen to graduate education within the next few years. Since the history of graduate education in this country is relatively short, beginning with the founding of Johns Hopkins in 1876, such an assignment might not seem formidable. But this is to underestimate the scope and volume of the argument that has attended it since its infancy, and the extent to which the facts and figures upon which much of the dispute has been based are flimsy or altogether lacking.

Merely to sort out the varying arguments about the subject into some coherent order is a major task, for they are based upon varying assumptions and upon values that are, as Mr. Berelson points out, ambiguous or contradictory. Reading the variety of attacks that have been made on the graduate schools reminds one of the



tale of the washerwomen who were shouting at one another from neighboring tenements: they could never agree because they were arguing from different premises.

Catalog of Complaints

Thus we hear that graduate education is too specialized, along with the argument that the dissertation should indeed constitute "an original and significant contribution to knowledge," which seems to presuppose a large degree of specialization. Thus we also hear both sides of the "numbers" argument: we are falling so far short of producing enough Ph.D.'s that by 1970 the teaching staffs of the colleges and universities will be practically stripped of holders of that degree; but enlarging the number of institutions giving the degree, and the number of candidates awarded it, can be achieved only at the expense of lowering standards. We hear that the graduate schools are not doing a proper job of preparing students for their lifetime task—a charge which if true is extremely serious, except that there is no agreement as to what the lifetime task of most Ph.D.'s either will be or should be.

It will be of comfort to some and discomfort to others that the criticisms now being made of graduate education have been made, in much the same sort of language, ever since the establishment of the Association of American Universities in 1900. It will be a source of discomfort if you belong to the "where there's smoke . . ." school; or of comfort if you take the attitude that since the graduate schools never bothered to "reform" themselves despite the constant advice to do so, perhaps the reform wasn't really needed. At any rate, without clues as to when the following comments were made, one would find it difficult to date them in view of their unchanging character:

The dissertation must be "sifted" because of its excessive length (1901);

"graduate instruction is not conducted . . . in a way which forces students into habits of independent study, reflection and inquiry" (1916);

"American graduate education is in a rut" (1944);

the university has sacrificed college teaching at the altar of research (1908 and almost every year);

"What does the degree really mean?" (1928);

"Why is the degree made the be-all and end-all? It is beginning to be known like a 'union card' for labor." (1916).

By 1909 the president of Harvard was deploring the "monstrous figures" (in the context he meant "large numbers") attending graduate school; and in 1912 the dean of Columbia was disturbed because "proficiency rather than scholarship" seemed to be the result of graduate study. The most celebrated, and certainly the most en-

tertaining, attack on the cult of the Ph.D. was made as early as 1903 by William James, who tangled with the many tentacles of the "Ph.D. octopus."

Despite the viewers with alarm (almost all of whom were and are, interestingly enough, involved in graduate education themselves), each decade has seen an increase in the number of graduate degrees given and the number of institutions giving them; whatever the weaknesses of the graduate schools, the best of them have raised this segment of American education to world-wide eminence. Yet the issues posed and the problems to be solved are real, and Dr. Berelson's study goes far toward placing the issues and problems in understandable and manageable order.

In a relatively short and eminently readable book, he has managed to give a brief history of the development of graduate education in the 85 years since it began in the U. S.; to set forth the issues that have developed; to analyze, and in some cases gather, the facts upon which the issues must be debated; and to arrive at certain conclusions and recommendations. He has done this through a reading of the literature; interviews with scores of people on the giving and getting ends of graduate education; and the compilation of data. He also uses responses to questions addressed to the graduate deans in 92 universities, hundreds of graduate faculty, all the presidents of four-year liberal arts colleges and teachers colleges, several hundred recent recipients of the Ph.D., and representatives of industries that employ sizable numbers of Ph.D.'s. He places more emphasis on the doctoral programs than on the Master's; he does not consider law and medicine (except occasionally for comparative purposes), but deals with graduate education in the arts and sciences and the other professional fields—education, business, agriculture, engineering, etc.

Since Dr. Berelson's book, although

lively, is so packed with information as to constitute almost a summary of the field in itself, it is impossible to summarize many of its points here. He describes the growth and decentralization of the system of graduate education, the quality of graduate schools, and the institutional flow of students and faculty. In a section on graduate students he furnishes data on their qualities, origins, and social backgrounds; their preparation; and their recruitment and types of financial support. He analyzes graduate programs, paying attention to the duration of doctoral study, the purposes and length of the dissertation, the Master's degree, post-doctoral work, the foreign language requirement, and the final examination. Finally he includes a summary of conclusions, a commentary on them, and recommendations as to what, in his opinion, should be done to improve graduate education.

A Big Problem

So the reader is directed to the book itself, and this article will deal with just one question—what everyone acknowledges to be A Big Problem (capitalization Dr. Berelson's) in American education today: the preparation of college teachers. (Faithful readers of the *QUARTERLY* will recall an article on this same subject in the January 1960 issue, based on Earl J. McGrath's pamphlet, "The Graduate School and the Decline of Liberal Education.")

From the beginning there has been the question of purpose; what is graduate education *for*? This usually boils down to a question of what priority should be assigned to the preparation of college teachers as against the training of researchers; and for those many critics who claim that the graduate schools have gone astray, it reduces further to these three charges:

1. *Policy*: the graduate schools have wrongly assigned priority to training for research.

2. *Program*: the graduate school selects

the wrong students in the first place and then gives them improper training, in that the training lacks a) sufficient breadth, and b) sufficient training in teaching.

3. *Numbers*: the graduate school is not training enough people to staff the colleges in the years ahead.

As for policy, it is true that the graduate schools *have* assigned priority to training for research; the only question is whether they have done so "wrongly." Those who claim that it is wrong base their criticism on what Dr. Berelson calls the market-research argument: the graduate schools should prepare their students directly for what the students subsequently do, the twin assumptions being that most teach and few do research.

These assumptions are not wholly correct, and they are becoming less correct as time goes by. At around the turn of the century about 80 per cent of all Ph.D.'s went into academic life; the trend has been increasingly downward, so that today only about 60 per cent do so. What is more significant is that only about 20 per cent go into undergraduate teaching in liberal arts colleges; the rest go into universities where they have "both the opportunity, and the ambition, to teach graduate courses for which research training is the *sine qua non*." And interestingly enough, almost all the college presidents agree with the statement that "the research training experience at the doctoral level, and particularly the dissertation, is necessary or desirable for the undergraduate teacher."

The other portion of the market-research argument is that few Ph.D.'s subsequently do research, or at least that it is not published if they do. Dr. Berelson says that the record shows that within 15 years after the doctorate from 80 to 90 per cent of all recipients in the natural sciences will have published something besides their dissertation of sufficient stature to be included in a scholarly bibliographical

source; more than three-fourths in psychology, more than two-thirds in philosophy and English, a little less in education, and from a fourth to a third in history.

Dr. Berelson concludes that both of the major assumptions underlying the market-research argument are faulty: "fewer than 'most' are engaged in college teaching, and more than a 'few' publish research."

Recruiting Future Teachers

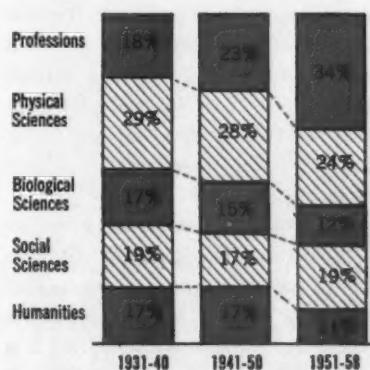
This does not settle the matter, however. Are the wrong—or at least not all the right—students allowed into the graduate schools, and does their training then lack sufficient breadth and proper training in how to teach? The first portion of this question is easier to answer than the last two; it is also academic, since at the present time every student who wants to go to graduate school *can* go somewhere. It is true, however, that intellectual capability is the major, if not sole, criterion by which students are consciously selected. Almost no one argues that this should not be so, but many point out that the qualities which go to make a good teacher include more than that. Many of those qualities, however, are not identifiable by testing; and in any event the judgments as to the students' suitability for teaching in general and the desired qualities in particular are made once they are in graduate school, by their professors and departments. "This may not always be done well in the individual case, but the rationale is clear enough: admit by intelligence and screen for other qualities later."

The problem of breadth is harder to tangle with. "In the first place," Dr. Berelson says, "it is often difficult or even impossible to learn from the critics how broad 'breadth' is supposed to be—except that it should be 'as broad as possible,' which of course it always is." Nonetheless there is a general feeling—among the graduate

deans and faculties as well as the college presidents—that it would be desirable to develop more interdepartmental and other programs to broaden doctoral study. Yet many of the attempts to do so have not caught on, and Dr. Berelson asks why, if more breadth is wanted, isn't it provided?

He thinks that a few facts of academic life provide the answers. People are already worried because the doctoral program takes "too long," and covering more material in the same amount of time makes for less thorough training; yet "thoroughness of training is a prime desideratum." In addition, the pressure is toward more specialization rather than less, because the body of knowledge is constantly growing. Finally, "the research experience represented by the doctoral dissertation cannot be given up since it is a necessary ingredient of doctoral training, and research requires specialization."

Dr. Berelson concludes that radical innovations on a national scale to achieve more breadth are not feasible—nor are they necessarily desirable. There is much to be said about the virtues of specialization in doctoral training, particularly when it comes where it does: after many years of general education, and before a lifetime of independent scholarship. As one graduate dean asked Dr. Berelson plaintively: "Can't they specialize now?"



Distribution of doctoral degrees by field

The criticism on which there is more substantial agreement is that the graduate schools do not teach students how to teach. Majorities of the graduate deans and faculties, recent recipients of the degree, and college presidents all agree to this. The question is, what can be done about it?

One thing that shall *not* be done about it, the arts and sciences faculty overwhelmingly agrees, is to have the departments or schools of education provide training in teaching to the graduate students. This means the work must be done in one of two—or perhaps divided between the two—places: the graduate school, and the undergraduate college in which the young Ph.D. first teaches.

The most prevalent way at the moment, based upon a hard economic reality, is to use a large number of graduate students as teaching assistants. The trouble with this system is three-fold: not all potential teachers have this experience; some have it for far too long; and the experience is insufficiently directed and planned.

Training for Teaching

If the graduate schools are serious about wanting to improve the teacher training they give, the ways in which they may do so are clear. They may require a period of teaching of all candidates. They may also ensure that it does not drag on forever, since the training value can be realized in a short time, and from then on it is less than honest to justify the system in terms of teacher training when it is actually the result of economic necessity on the part of the institution and/or student. Finally, they may give proper supervision and ensure that the assistants perform some of the duties they will actually have as teachers—planning course outlines, leading discussion groups, giving lectures—instead of being merely the "intellectual dishwashers" of the graduate school community.

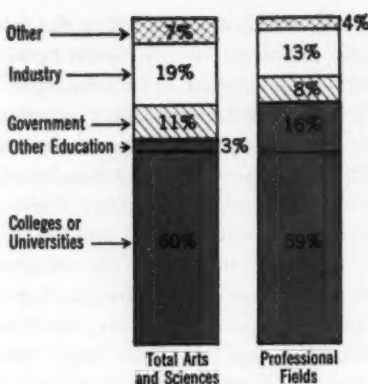
The colleges in which the young graduate will teach, however, may also want to assume more responsibility for teaching him how. They have teaching as their major task, and dedicated and gifted teachers already on their staffs who could help the neophytes. According to Dr. Berelson, "in a proper division of labor, the graduate school might prepare the student in *what* to teach, and the college in *how*."

Despite the real problems and concerns, how do the people involved—the graduate deans and faculties on the one hand and the liberal arts college presidents on the other—feel in general about how well the graduate schools prepare college teachers? Here the shocker is that the consumer is better pleased with the producer's product than the producer is. Half the presidents say the graduate school "is doing reasonably well . . . in both quantity and quality" as against less than a fourth of the graduate faculty and a sixth of the deans. And in reply to another question, two-thirds of the presidents said that "despite some problems with it, the present doctorate program is a good one for college teachers."

Another point Dr. Berelson makes is that the critics of the present system have failed to come up with specific and workable alternatives, although the graduate schools would be willing to consider them. As one undergraduate dean remarked to him: "The opponents of the research program haven't identified the right enemy. Simply to knock out research does not make people into good teachers."

The Numbers Game

If the preparation of college teachers is A Big Problem in graduate education, whether enough of them will be produced is Another Big Question. Numerous answers to this question—few of them in agreement but all of them pessimistic—have been published over the past decade. Dr. Berelson



Types of employment of 1958 recipients of the doctorate

devotes several pages of his book to figures, projections, and analyses.

Briefly it comes to this, as Dr. Berelson sees it. The actual problem is that within a 15-year period (say from 1955 to 1970) our baccalaureate ranks will have doubled. But they have doubled or more every 15 years of this century—and doctorates have doubled every ten years. In addition, Dr. Berelson points out, the colleges and universities have choices to make which

will affect the situation. Raising the teacher-student ratio by one, for example, would make a difference of about 25,000 teachers at the anticipated 1970 level of enrollment.

He concludes: "The numbers problem in itself does not appear to justify major changes in the training program, nor to justify a shift of attention to quantity and away from quality. . . . The numbers game is by no means lost." If, in fact, enrollments in 1970 are not much over six million, he believes that there is a good chance that the proportion of doctorates in the classrooms of 1970 will be increased rather than lowered.

He also believes, as a general proposition, that whether it wants it or not, the graduate school now has a responsibility of leadership in American education and even American life. And despite all its faults, he says, in far less than a century it has already brought "American research and scholarship to a position of world leadership and it has systematically furthered man's knowledge of himself and his world."

Academic Government

If you ask the right questions, it is generally agreed, you are well along the road to finding the right answers; so the question-asker performs a useful function in our society. This service is performed by John J. Corson in a book to be published on November 8 by the McGraw-Hill Book Company under the title *The Governance of Higher Education*.

"Governance," according to the Oxford Universal Dictionary, is a shorter way of saying "action or manner of governing"; if as an American you use Webster, you might conclude that it is a fancier way of saying "government." At any rate, Mr. Corson, a manage-

ment consultant with McKinsey and Company, overseer of Sweet Briar College, and oftentime professor who has devoted much time in recent years to problems of higher education, describes the setting in which American colleges and universities are governed. Mr. Corson, who served as staff director of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School in 1958, did the present study under a Carnegie grant. He asks questions about how our higher educational institutions can be administered the better to achieve their purposes, and inquires into how their governments differ from those of other organizations.

They do differ, and for a number of reasons. "The process of deciding is distinctive in the college or university in the degree to which *final* responsibility for making decisions is diffused," says Mr. Corson.

Is this diffusion of decision-making necessary? Probably yes. Although the university struggles with the same dilemma any organization does—how to order the energies of all its members to achieve its goals while simultaneously encouraging the individual enterprise of each member—it does not serve one precisely defined purpose by which individuals and groups may be guided in making decisions. It has multiple purposes, according to Mr. Corson.

It is also minutely segmented by discipline; is subject to the influences of alumni, accrediting associations, donors, foundations, and other external groups; and it works within the traditions of departmental autonomy and faculty tenure. And the university has yet another curious characteristic: its principal product *and* chief consumer are one and the same—the student. The changes that take place in him cannot be evaluated soon enough to enable the producer to correct weaknesses in his selection of raw material or methods of production. Nor does the producer—the faculty and administration—attach great significance to the consumer's view, at least in Mr. Corson's opinion.

Given these inherent peculiarities in the setting in which the university's decision-making system must operate, what are the components of that system? Formally, the board of trustees or regents has final authority for the college or university, from finances to academic program to an infraction of discipline on the part of a freshman. But although the trustees articulate the broad lines of educational policy, actual if not legal responsibility for the institution's academic program lies with the faculty, and for the management of physical and financial re-

sources with the president and the other administrative officers. Thus beyond the trustees is the president, and beyond him the faculty as a group, and individual teachers, department heads, deans, administrative officers—and athletic coaches.

All of these have final decisions to make which will shape the future of their university. Greater collaboration among them all will better serve the talents of all and the interests of the institution, says Mr. Corson, and he raises questions which must be answered before this can be brought about.

A Few Questions

How can trustees achieve a clearer definition of their responsibilities? How can the president and his immediate assistants—who are the only participants in the decision-making process who can contribute a university-wide point of view—influence decisions that affect the central purpose of the university? What should be the basic administrative unit? How and for what roles are deans selected? What should be the role of the faculty—as the final authority on matters of educational policy, or as advisers to presidents and deans?

There are two major factors which sustain the college or university as a whole in the pursuit of its purposes: the existence of an institutional character, and leadership. Mr. Corson paraphrases Talcott Parsons to define institutional character as "the values of the organization and how these are reflected in its structure and functioning." If the values are poor, or if good are not reflected adequately, the institution of course suffers. But the most important factor of all is leadership, and where it does not give continual and progressive direction to the decisions of a college or university, the institution's character changes—usually for the worse. Mr. Corson suggests that a most fruitful topic for study might be an analysis of the characters and leadership of a number of great and poor colleges, so as to learn better what institutional character is, how it is shaped, and how the president, trustees, deans, and faculty can utilize or modify it to achieve desirable ends.

It is unfortunate but true, according to Mr. Corson, that neither the current operations nor the future activities of colleges and universities are often guided by a conscious thinking out in advance of what is to be done, by whom, and when. Even if a decision is made, methods of seeing that action is taken are limited in a university because of the sensitivity, specialization, tenure, and traditional autonomy of the professor and the department. Yet the universities are now compelled by circumstances to make fundamental and immediate decisions about their purpose, size, use of facilities, the research contracts that they can or will accept, and any number of other questions. Whether they will make these decisions clearly and knowingly, or simply be buffeted by the pressures ahead into paths not of their own conscious choosing, will be dependent upon the ability of trustees, administrators, department heads, and faculty members to agree upon improved processes of governing.



Survey of Nigerian Educational Needs

On October 4, just four days after Nigeria achieved independence, the Nigerian Minister of Education released to the press the text of a report, "Investment in Education," on post-secondary education in Nigeria. The study, prepared by a commission composed of American, British, and Nigerian members, outlines Nigeria's probable needs for higher and technical education over the coming 20 years and makes recommendations for meeting them. The survey was made at the request of the Nigerian government, with financial support from Carnegie Corporation.

New Grants

Grants amounting to \$370,720 were voted during the final quarter of the fiscal year 1959-60, which ended September 30. The total appropriations for the year amounted to \$9,643,770.

The income for the year was \$10,513,000, of which \$900,000 had been set aside to meet commitments, including those for teachers' pensions, incurred in previous years. It is the Corporation's policy to spend all income during the year in which it is received.

Included among the grants voted recently are those listed below:

United States

The Brookings Institution, for an appraisal of methods of federal financial assistance to state and local governments, \$43,220.

Haverford College, for a conference on honors work in liberal arts colleges, \$26,500.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, toward support of an international conference on scientific and engineering education, \$25,000.

University of Michigan, for research on organizations, \$38,000.

Yale University, for a study of cultural values and political processes, \$12,500.

Commonwealth

Association of Principals of Teacher Training Colleges of the High Commission Territories, for a travel fund to enable members to attend meetings and visit each other's institutions, \$11,500.

Nigerian College of Arts, Science, and Technology, to strengthen the regional service of the Department of Education, \$56,000.

University of Nigeria, for support of a seminar on education, \$10,000.

Makerere College (The University College of East Africa), for expansion of its extra-mural program, \$62,000.

York University (Toronto), for support of a curriculum study, \$12,500.

New Books

A study of the life and times of Henry L. Stimson, written by Elting E. Morison, has been published by the Houghton-Mifflin Company under the title *Turmoil and Tradition*. Mr. Morison wrote the book largely from the Stimson papers, with support from the Stimson estate and the Corporation.

Columbia University Press has recently published *Sources of Chinese Tradition*, one of a series of books of readings in non-Western civilizations.

The Council on Foreign Relations, which receives support from Carnegie Corporation as well as other foundations, has inaugurated the policy of occasionally publishing revised editions of important studies made under the Council's auspices, as well as publishing where possible in paperback editions. Richard Stebbins' *The United States in World Affairs, 1959*, which already had been printed in cloth covers, is now available in a paperback edition, as is a revised edition of John Campbell's *Defense of the Middle East*.

Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly

OCTOBER 1960

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Helen Rowan, *Editor*

Each issue of the Quarterly describes only a few of many Carnegie-supported projects in a variety of fields. Full listings of all the Corporation's activities are contained in its annual reports, which usually are published in January.

Carnegie Corporation of New York is a philanthropic foundation created by Andrew Carnegie in 1911 for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding. It has a basic endowment of \$135 million and its present assets, reckoned at cost value, are approximately \$214 million. The income from \$12 million of this fund may be used in certain British Commonwealth areas; all other income must be spent in the United States.

The Corporation is primarily interested in higher education and in certain aspects of public and international affairs. Grants are made to colleges and universities, professional associations, and other educational organizations for specific programs. In higher education, these include basic research, studies of educational developments, training opportunities for teachers and administrators, and other educational projects of an experimental nature. In public and international affairs, the Corporation is concerned primarily with research and training programs which promise increased understanding of the problems the nation faces and which provide better selection and training of young men and women who must deal with these problems.

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